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Association between the lockdown for SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) and reduced surgical site infections after vascular exposure in the groin at two Italian academic hospitals

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1 **Association between the lockdown for SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) and reduced surgical site**
2 **infections after vascular exposure in the groin at two Italian academic hospitals**

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26 **ABSTRACT**

27 **Objective.** The aim of this study was to evaluate whether the scrupulous hygiene rules and the
28 restriction of contacts during the lockdown owing to the COVID-19 pandemic affected the rate and
29 severity of surgical site infections (SSI) after vascular exposure in the groin at two Italian University
30 Hospitals.

31
32 **Methods.** Starting from March 2020, strict hygiene measures for protection of HCW and patients
33 from COVID-9 infection were implemented, and partly lifted in July 2020. The main exposure for
34 analysis purposes was the period in which patients were operated. Accordingly, study subjects were
35 divided into two groups for subsequent comparisons (pre-COVID-19 era: March-June 2018-2019 vs
36 COVID-19 era: March-June 2020). The primary endpoint was the occurrence of superficial and/or
37 deep SSI within 30 days after surgery. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention definitions
38 were used to classify superficial and deep SSI.

39
40 **Results.** A total of 194 consecutive patients who underwent vascular exposure in the groin were
41 retrospectively analyzed. Of those, 60 underwent surgery from April 1, 2018 to June 30 of the same
42 year; 83 from April 1, 2019 to June 30 of the same year; and 51 from April 1, 2020 to June 30 of the
43 same year. The mean age of the study cohort was 75 years and 140 (72%) were males. Patients who
44 were operated in the COVID-19 era were less likely to develop SSI (10% vs 28%; $p=.008$), including
45 both deep SSI (4% vs 13%; $p=.04$) and superficial SSI (6% vs 15%; $p=.05$). After multivariate
46 adjustments, being operated in the COVID-19 era was found to be a negative predictor for
47 development of an SSI (OR=0.31; 95%CI=0.09-0.76; $p<.001$) or deep SSI (OR=0.21; 95%CI=0.03-
48 0.98; $p<.001$). Operative time was also found as independent predictor for development of deep SSI
49 (OR=1.21; 95%CI=1.21-1.52; $p=.02$). Using binary logistic regression there were no independent
50 predictors of superficial SSI that could be identified.

51

52 **Conclusions.** Vascular exposure in the groin carries a non-negligible risk of SSI. In this study, we
53 provided important insights that simple and easily viable precautions (such as the universal use of
54 surgical masks both for patients and healthcare professionals during wound care, the widespread
55 diffusion of hand sanitizers, and the reduction of the number of visitors in the surgical wards) could
56 be promising and safe tools for SSI risk reduction.

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58 **Keywords.** Vascular surgery; Surgical site infection; Perioperative outcomes; Femoral artery; Groin;
59 COVID-19.

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77 INTRODUCTION

78 Surgical site infections (SSI) are the most commonly in-hospital acquired infections¹, and SSI after
79 vascular exposure in the groin are still commonplace following arterial interventions². Deep SSI in
80 particular may account for a significant proportion of these infections, carrying a risk of re-
81 intervention, prolonged hospitalization, increased costs, major lower limb amputation, or even death.
82 As such, recent guidelines on the management of vascular graft infections highlight the importance
83 of identifying and understanding risk factors in relation to SSI³.

84 There are many ways to reduce the rate of SSIs, and optimization of potentially modifiable patient-
85 level (e.g., smoking cessation, optimal glycemic control, screening for multi-drug resistant bacteria)
86 and procedure-level (e.g. skin disinfection, antibiotic prophylaxis, careful surgical wound dressing)
87 risk factors is the first step to pursue in the prevention of SSI. Indeed, the World Health Organization
88 (WHO) has introduced the “global guidelines for the prevention of SSI” where preoperative and
89 intraoperative measures are highlighted that may reduce the incidence and severity of SSI⁴.
90 Concerning the postoperative prevention of SSI, it is necessary to use a bundle of strategies, with
91 meticulous hand hygiene and asepsis during wound care being the cornerstone of care⁵⁻⁸.

92 The SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has led to adding other recommendations to those guidelines. In
93 particular, the WHO recommended increased precautions be taken by healthcare workers (HCW) to
94 protect themselves and patients from virus infection^{9, 10}. These measures included the constant use of
95 a face mask (e.g., surgical masks, FFP-2, FFP-3, KN95), mandatory use of gloves, frequent hand-
96 rubbing with alcoholic solution, and limited movement of staff and patients including restricted
97 access for relatives or caregivers (*Figure 1*).

98 The aim of this study was to evaluate whether the scrupulous hygiene rules and the restriction of
99 contacts during the lockdown owing to the COVID-19 pandemic affected the rate and severity of SSI
100 after vascular exposure in the groin at two Italian University Hospitals.

101

102 METHODS

103 **Study design.** Starting from March 2020, strict hygiene measures for protection of HCW and patients
104 from COVID-9 infection were implemented, and partly lifted in July 2020. The main exposure for
105 analysis purposes was the period in which patients were operated. Accordingly, study subjects were
106 divided into two groups for subsequent comparisons (pre-COVID-19 era: March-June 2018-2019 vs
107 COVID-19 era: March-June 2020). All patients were routinely followed-up in the outpatient clinic
108 for 30 days after surgery. Eligible patients included those of 18 years and older undergoing elective
109 or emergency surgical procedures that required vascular exposure in the groin including Fogarty
110 embolectomy, femoral endarterectomy, and femoropopliteal bypass. Local departmental structures
111 approved the study which did not alter routine standards of care delivered to patients. Retrospectively
112 collected data included baseline demographics, cardiovascular risk factors and medical comorbidities,
113 chronic medications, and operative details. Surgical risk was defined according to the Society for
114 Vascular Surgery and American Society of Anesthesiology risk scores.

115
116 **Surgical practice.** All patients were admitted to the surgical ward only if they had a negative COVID-
117 19 swab.in the last 48 hours. Most patients received antibiotic prophylaxis with Cefazoline 2g
118 according to the surgical departments' guidelines. The antibiotic was re-dosed if the operation lasted
119 longer than 4 hours. Prolonged antibiotic therapy lasting more than 24 hours after the surgical
120 operation were prescribed on a case-by-case basis as clinically needed. The surgical site was prepared
121 with a careful skin disinfection using iodine povidone or, alternatively, chlorhexidine alcohol if
122 allergies were present. All groin incisions were done in longitudinal fashion, as this represents the
123 routine approach to vascular exposure in the groin at the study centers.

124
125 **Statistical analysis.** The primary endpoint was the occurrence of superficial and/or deep SSI within
126 30 days after surgery. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention definitions were used to
127 classify superficial and deep SSI. Secondary endpoints included mortality and major lower limb
128 amputation within 30 days from index operation. All data were evaluated for normality with quantile-

129 quantile plots. Continuous variables are expressed with either mean or median values, with
130 corresponding standard deviation (SD) or interquartile range (IQR). Categorical variables are
131 presented as a percentage. Univariable analyses were carried out with either Student's T test for
132 continuous variables, and chi-square test or Fisher's exact test for categorical variables. Binary
133 logistic regression was used for the multivariate analysis to calculate odds ratios with 95% confidence
134 intervals (CIs). Covariates for these models were selected based on univariate screen of all available
135 potential confounders and stepwise backward regression to fit the model. Data were analysed using
136 IBM SPSS Statistics 24 (IBM, Armonk, NY). A $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

137

138 RESULTS

139 **Baseline characteristics.** A total of 194 consecutive patients who underwent vascular exposure in
140 the groin were retrospectively analyzed. Of those, 60 underwent surgery from April 1, 2018 to June
141 30 of the same year; 83 from April 1, 2019 to June 30 of the same year; and 51 from April 1, 2020 to
142 June 30 of the same year. The mean age of the study cohort was 75 years and 140 (72%) were males
143 (*Table I*). At baseline, patients operated in the COVID-19 era had lower hemoglobin values ($p=.04$)
144 and were more likely to be anemic before the operation ($p=.04$). Also, they were less likely to undergo
145 urgent operations ($p=.02$) but underwent more complex procedures that required more often the
146 association of distal endovascular interventions ($p=.004$) and had longer operative times ($p<.001$).
147 When comparing patients who were operated in the two years that comprised the pre-COVID-19-era,
148 no significant differences were found in terms of baseline demographics, risk factors, or procedural
149 details.

150

151 **Clinical outcomes.** Patients who were operated in the COVID-19 era were less likely to develop SSI
152 (10% vs 28%; $p=.008$), including both deep SSI (4% vs 13%; $p=.04$) and superficial SSI (6% vs 15%;
153 $p=.05$) (*Figure 2*). No significant differences were found in the rate of SSI in the years 2018 vs. 2019
154 (pre-COVID-19 era). Also, no significant differences were found in the rates of lower limb

155 amputation or early mortality when comparing the pre-COVID-19 era (years 2018-2019) vs the
156 COVID-19 era (year 2020).

157

158 **Predictors of SSI.** After multivariate adjustments, being operated in the COVID-19 era was found
159 to be a negative predictor for development of an SSI (OR=0.31; 95%CI=0.09-0.76; $p<.001$) (*Table*
160 *IIA*) or deep SSI (OR=0.21; 95%CI=0.03-0.98; $p<.001$) (*Table IIB*). Operative time was also found
161 as independent predictor for development of deep SSI (OR=1.21; 95%CI=1.21-1.52; $p=.02$). Using
162 binary logistic regression there were no independent predictors of superficial SSI that could be
163 identified (*Table IIC*).

164

165 **DISCUSSION**

166 Reducing the occurrence of SSIs is the main focus of numerous quality improvement initiatives as
167 they represent a common and costly cause of potentially preventable patient morbidity¹¹. In vascular
168 surgery, exposure of the femoral vessels in the groin remains burdened with a not-negligible rate of
169 SSI and continues to attract notable research efforts in the contemporary era¹². Indeed, SSI are
170 associated with an increased risk of postoperative morbidity, prolonged hospitalization,
171 postponement of rehabilitation, increased healthcare costs, and in some cases possibly poorer long-
172 term outcomes due to a worsening of the overall clinical picture. However, in-depth analyses of this
173 particular issue in vascular surgery patients during the COVID-19 pandemic has not been extensively
174 investigated¹³.

175 While some risk factors for SSI may be not modifiable, there exist some modifiable phenomena
176 that could be targeted with focused interventions to reduce the burden of SSI in the groin. The main
177 findings of our study, which analysed 194 consecutive patients who underwent vascular exposure in
178 the groin, were that those who were operated in the COVID-19 era (when more strict measures for
179 the prevention of infectious disease transmission were taken) were less likely to develop SSI, both
180 deep and superficial. To our knowledge this is one the largest available case-series of vascular surgical

181 patients specifically evaluated for the incidence and severity of SSI during the lockdown for the
182 SARS-CoV-2 pandemic but may serve to identify some important factors that can contribute to
183 improve peri-operative care to vascular patients. Although some differences were noted in the
184 technical details of the procedures that were performed during the COVID-19 era (such as the increase
185 in operative time that was likely related to an increase in the complexity of procedures with more
186 frequent hybrid operations and associated distal endovascular procedures, or the more frequent use
187 of autologous vein-based patch for femoral reconstruction), it is unlikely they might have
188 significantly contributed to the observed reduction in SSI rates.

189 Recently, the Surgical Care Improvement Project was created with the aim to reduce postoperative
190 SSI by focusing on a series of pre-operative precautions such as prophylactic antibiotic
191 administration, skin-hair clipping, and normothermia. However, despite evidence supporting the
192 importance of these processes, high compliance is only weakly linked to improved outcomes. Several
193 adjuncts aimed at reducing SSI have been evaluated in vascular groin wounds, including prophylactic
194 closed incision negative pressure wound therapy (ciNPWT), local antibiotics, wound drains, platelet
195 rich plasma, skin closure methods, fibrin glue, and silver alginate dressings^{14, 15}. Although the
196 evidence for ciNPWT's efficacy in reducing SSI in vascular groin wounds is encouraging^{16, 17}, data
197 regarding the cost-effectiveness of their routine use are still lacking. In a recent systematic review on
198 the effectiveness of wound adjuncts for prevention of SSI after vascular exposure in the groin¹⁸, the
199 use of ciNPWT was found to be as an effective intervention for preventing both superficial and deep
200 SSI; available evidence suggested that local antibiotics do not reduce overall SSI rates, but may
201 reduce superficial SSIs, and that subcuticular sutures, as opposed to other methods of closure, may
202 also reduce the occurrence of SSI. However, all these interventions might entail significant additional
203 costs, be difficult to implement in a homogeneous and capillary fashion or be possibly linked to
204 harmful side effects for patients.

205 In contrast, in our study we were able to identify some preventive measures that, if adopted, could
206 reduce the occurrence of SSI in the groin with an almost nihil risk of related adverse events to patients,

207 without involving a dramatic increase in healthcare costs, and that could be broadly and easily
208 implemented. Notably, as the only salient changes in surgical practice during the COVID-19 era were
209 related to more strict hygiene measures (such as the universal use of surgical masks both for patients
210 and healthcare professionals during wound care, the widespread diffusion of hand sanitizers, and the
211 reduction of the number of visitors in the surgical wards), it would be reasonable to infer that such
212 measures were implicated in the reduction of SSI rate in the groin¹⁹.

213 Therefore, the above-mentioned initiatives can logically represent cost-effective preventive measures
214 that would be worth incorporating into routine clinical practice even outside of the pandemic period.
215 Future studies with larger samples will be needed to confirm these results and further improve the
216 care of surgical wounds. However, owing to the intrinsic safety and reasonable cost-effectiveness of
217 the hygienic measures that were identified in this study as potential factors underlying a significant
218 decrease in SSI rates after vascular exposure in the groin, it would be reasonable to pay them further
219 attention during clinical care in surgical wards. As for other types of vascular infections, the
220 establishment of close multidisciplinary collaboration and definition of clear organizational models
221 for integrated pathways of care might represent the most adequate steps to achieve further reduction
222 in the rate of SSI^{20, 21}.

223
224 **Study limitations.** Findings from this study must be interpreted within the context of its limitations,
225 including the retrospective design and relatively small sample size. However, data capture was highly
226 accurate with missing values below 1% for all variables of interest and complete 30-day clinical
227 assessment for all included patients. We tried to account for known confounders using multivariate
228 adjustments, but the relatively small number of SSI and the short period of observation might
229 underestimate the role of residual unknown confounders. In fact, while there have been a number of
230 subsequent lockdown periods, the protocols during such periods have been less consistent as
231 compared with the first pandemic wave (e.g. limited access to caregivers instead of totally restricted
232 access) and more difficult to track. Although the COVID-lockdown period was characterized by a

233 reduction of outpatient activities, the number of inpatient procedures remained quite stable (especially
234 those for peripheral artery disease)¹⁰. Furthermore, the number of trainees as well as nursing-to-
235 patient ratio remained unchanged, further reducing potential confounding. Lastly, the proposed
236 multivariable model does not equal a risk scoring tool and should be validated in future larger studies.

237

238 **CONCLUSIONS**

239 Vascular exposure in the groin carries a non-negligible risk of SSI. In this study, we provided
240 important insights that simple and easily viable precautions (such as the universal use of surgical
241 masks both for patients and healthcare professionals during wound care, the widespread diffusion of
242 hand sanitizers, and the reduction of the number of visitors in the surgical wards) could be promising
243 and safe tools for SSI risk reduction.

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259 **FIGURE/TABLE LEGENDS**

- 260 • **Figure 1.** Diagram showing main infrastructural changes to clinical care in the surgical ward
261 between pre-COVID-19 era vs. COVID-19 era
- 262 • **Figure 2.** Clinical outcomes at 30 days. A) Amputation & Mortality; B) SSI.
- 263 • **Table I.** Baseline characteristics of the study cohort.
- 264 • **Table II.** Multivariate logistic regression for independent predictors of SSI. A) Any SSI; B) Deep
265 SSI; C) Superficial SSI.

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Table I. Baseline characteristics of the study cohort.

Variable	Overall cohort <i>n</i> =194	Pre-SARS-CoV2 era (2018-2019) <i>n</i> =143	SARS-Cov2 era (2020) <i>n</i> =51	<i>P</i> value	Pre-SARS-CoV2 era (2018) <i>n</i> =60	Pre-SARS-CoV2 era (2019) <i>n</i> =83	<i>P</i> value
<i>Demographics & Risk factors</i>							
Age (years)	75,3 ± 9,2	75,5±9,3	74,7±8,9	.57	74,52±10,4	76,19±8,4	.29
Age >80 y	72 (37,1)	53 (37,1)	19 (37,3)	.98	20 (33,3)	33 (39,8)	.43
Males	140 (72,2)	101 (70,6)	39 (76,5)	.42	38 (63,3)	63 (75,9)	.10
Smoking	125 (66,1)	94 (67,1)	31 (63,3)	.62	38(65,5)	56(68,3)	.73
Body Mass Index	25,4 ± 3,6	25,3 ± 3,9	25,3 ±2,6	.96	24,8 ± 3,8	25,7 ± 3,8	.23
Obesity	17 (10,4)	15 (11,7)	2 (5,7)	.30	6 (10,9)	9 (12,3)	.81
Dyslipidemia	100 (51,5)	75 (52,4)	25 (49)	.67	27 (45)	48 (57,8)	.13
Diabetes	75 (38,7)	54 (37,8)	21 (41,2)	.67	17 (28,3)	37 (44,6)	.06
SVS scre	3,3 ± 2,4	3,31 ± 2,2	3,31 ± 2,7	.99	2,88 ± 2,2	3,63 ± 2,2	.06
ASA score	140 (72,5)	106 (74,6)	34 (66,7)	.16	47 (78,3)	59 (72)	.39
Clopidogrel	49 (25,4)	39 (27,5)	10 (19,6)	.14	19 (31,6)	20 (24,0)	.11
Direct Oral Anticoagulants	12 (6,1)	9 (6,3)	3 (5,8)	.48	2 (3,3)	7 (8,5)	.22
Statins	94 (48,7)	71 (50)	23 (45,1)	.55	31 (51,7)	40 (48,8)	.73
Warfarin	22 (11,4)	15 (10,6)	7 (13,7)	.54	5 (8,3)	10 (12,2)	.46
Albuminemia (g/dL)	3,8 ± 0,6	3,7 ± 0,6	3,7 ± 0,5	.82	3,5 ± 0,6	3,9 ± 0,5	.09
Hypoalbuminemia	51 (33,1)	38 (33,6)	13 (31,7)	.82	13 (21,6)	25 (30,1)	.07
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	12,1 ± 2,1	12,2 ± 2	11,5 ± 2,4	.04	11,9 ± 1,9	12,6 ± 1,9	.10
Anemia	107 (55,2)	73 (51)	34 (66,7)	.04	29 (48,3)	44 (53,0)	.22
Leucocytosis	40 (20,6)	27	13	.31	11 (18,3)	16 (19,2)	.85

		(18,9)	(25,5)				
<i>Procedural details</i>							
Rutherford category 5-6	57 (29,5)	38 (26,8)	19 (37,3)	.15	18(30,5)	20(24,1)	.39
Urgent operation	166 (86)	127 (89,4)	39 (76,5)	.02	55(91.2)	72(86.7)	.12
Graft needed	158 (81,9)	117 (82,4)	41 (80,4)	.75	46(78,0)	71(60,7)	.24
Patch	75 (47,5)	60 (51,3)	15 (36,6)	.11	23(50)	37 (52.1)	.82
Bypass	83 (52,5)	57 (48,7)	26 (63,4)		23(50,0)	34(47,9)	
Patch/Graft	114 (59,1)	79 (55,6)	35 (68,6)	.11	36(61,0)	43(51,8)	.27
Prosthetic	56 (49,1)	44 (55,7)	12 (34,3)	.03	18(50,0)	17(39,5)	.35
Autologous	58 (50,9)	35 (44,3)	23 (65,7)		18(50,0)	26(60,5)	
Proximal Endovascular Associated	85 (43,8)	64 (44,8)	21 (41,2)	.66	26 (43.3)	38 (45,8)	.86
Distal Endovascular Associated	38 (19,6)	21 (14,7)	17 (33,3)	.004	9 (15)	12 (14,5)	.93
Operative time (minutes)	175 ± 98	160 ± 76	218 ± 135	<.001	160 ± 77	160 ± 75	.95
Clip skin closure	76 (39,2)	52 (36,4)	24 (47,1)	.18	24 (40)	28 (33,7)	.44
Post-op antibiotic >24 hours	61 (31,4)	44 (30,8)	17 (33,3)	.73	19 (31.6)	25 (30.1)	.84
Length of stay in hospital (days)	9 ± 9	9±9	7±7	.15	9±8	7±7	.21
Home discharge	69 (35,6)	47 (32,9)	22 (43,1)	.18	21 (35)	26 (31,3)	.64
Post-operative transfusions	33 (17)	25 (17,5)	8 (15,7)	.77	12 (20)	13 (15,7)	.53
Hospitalization in intensive care	44 (22,7)	28 (19,6)	16 (31,4)	.08	9 (15)	19 (22,9)	.24

Table IIA. Multivariate logistic regression for independent predictors of any SSI.

Variables	OR	CI 95%	P value
Pre operative anemia	1.40	0.69-2.85	.34
Distal endovascular associated	0.46	0.15-1.38	.16
Operative time	1.01	0.99-1.01	.22
Timing (urgency)	1.41	0.82-2.42	.24
COVID era	0.31	0.09-0.76	<.001

Table IIB. Multivariate logistic regression for independent predictors of deep SSI.

Variables	OR	CI 95%	P value
Pre operative anemia	1.81	0.67-4.87	.23
Distal endovascular associated	0.13	0.01-1.14	.66
Operative time	1.11	1.21-1.52	.02
Timing (urgency)	1.5	0.79-3.41	.41
COVID era	0.21	0.03-0.98	<.001

Table IIC. Multivariate logistic regression for independent predictors of superficial SSI.

Variables	OR	CI 95%	P value
Pre operative anemia	1.14	0.43-2.52	.91
Distal endovascular associated	1.21	0.33-3.8	.83
Operative time	0.96	0.99-1.01	.47
Timing (urgency)	1.54	0.45-2.87	.48
COVID era	0.49	0.11-1.45	.16

REDUCING RISK FACTORS IN THE PREVENTION OF SSIs

Pre-SARS-CoV2 era



SARS-Cov2 era

Pre-operative measures

- Smoking cessation,
- Optimal glycemic control,
- Bathing,
- Screening for resistant bacteria)

Intra-operative measures

- Use of antimicrobial prophylaxis,
- Alcoholic Clorexidine for skin decontamination, skin barriers
- Maintenance of intraoperative homeothermy

Post-operative measures

- Meticulous hand hygiene and asepsis during wound care
- Presence of a wound-care supervisor in the surgical team



- Contact and droplets precaution during the care of suspected COVID-19 patients

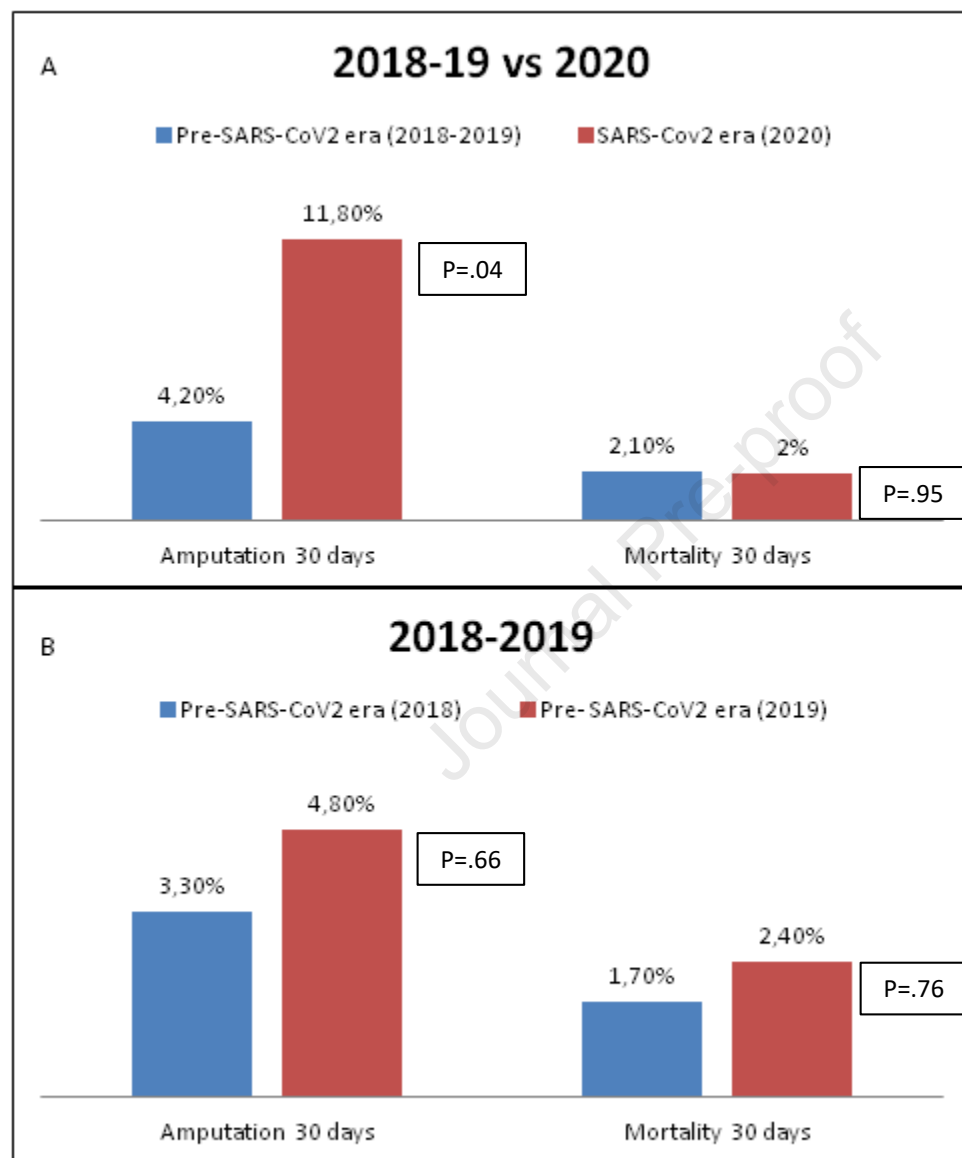
- Constant use of a face mask (e.g., surgical masks, FFP-2, FFP-3, KN95) to gain source control

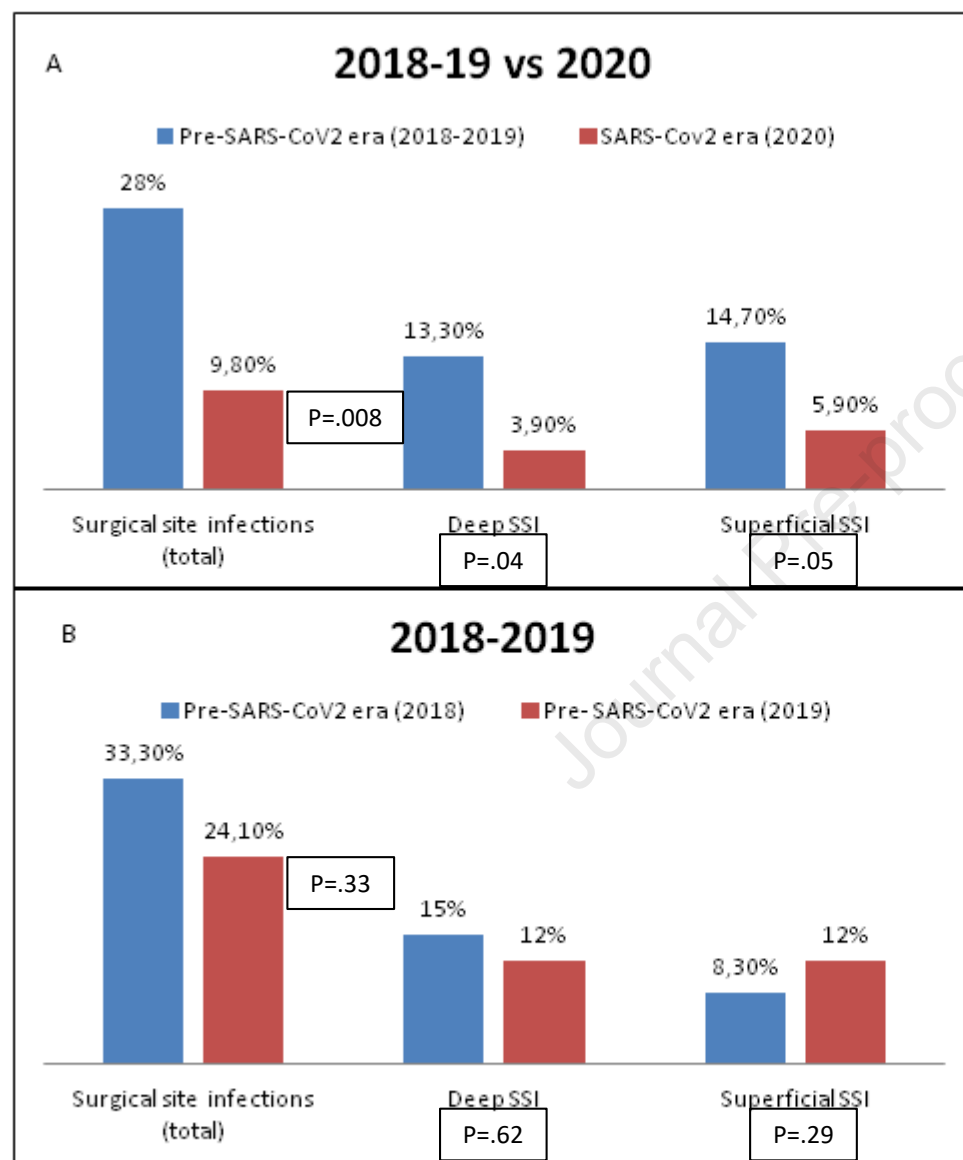
- Access to the Surgery Service for the patients' parents and visitors was strictly forbidden.

- Use of gloves and surgical masks, hand-rubbing with alcoholic solution before and after the patients' contact

- Higher use of hand hygiene and limited the movement of staff and patients.

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